

# The Citizen

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*"There are some who desire to know with the sole purpose that they may know, and it is curiosity: and some who desire to know that they may be known, and it is base ambition: and some who desire to know that they may sell their knowledge for wealth and honor, and it is base avarice: but there are some, also, who desire to know that they may be edified, and it is prudence, and some who desire to know that they may help others, and it is charity."*—S. BERNARD.

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# The Citizen

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## Life and Education.

THE problem of perpetual motion confronts us at every turn and always with a new sense of its importance. If only things would go on of themselves having once been persuaded into a promising and beneficent activity! If only we could rely upon a self-perpetuating force which should carry them on in a constant purpose of well doing, if not to a foreseen and desired completion! We are ready to labor with our hands if need be, to put all the

strength of our minds and hearts into sustained effort, to pray earnestly with our faces toward Jerusalem, until the work is set on order, established, organized, and directed, but then have we not a right to the pleasure of sitting by and seeing it go on? Paul is willing to plant and Apollos to water, but there are other seedtimes and harvests than those of this special and perhaps somewhat narrow field. To vary the figure, having brought the solar system into working order by a good deal of dead lift, might we not with some reason trust the law of gravitation to do the rest? These are the reflections which crowd upon one in the month of October. The summer holiday has waxed and waned, the crisp bracing weather we are wont to invoke as the inspiration and the means of good work is here, a renewed vigor, result of a grateful rest, makes burdens light and we are ready, sometimes with positive enthusiasm, to put again our shoulders to the wheel. But the very force of the impetus brings a sigh—if only it might be applied to some new wheel—if only the old ones would revolve without us! So much of ourselves was put into last year and apparently there is the same demand to be met in this. If the thing is for the best, why will not the trend of civilization sweep it along in its own time, while we turn our energies to the inception of a new benevolence or a new reform? It will be a brief revolt. We shall settle down into the old grooves, urge the old arguments, struggle with the old difficulties, and adopt the old expedients before November is really upon us. We do not need to be told that it is the doing of the things, not their net result, that must afford the satisfaction we would fain cherish; that—

"Not on the vulgar mass  
Called 'work,' must sentence pass,  
Things done, that took the eye and had the price."

But the recognition of the inevitable is a valuable if somewhat ascetic form of diversion, and, if in the late winter of our discontent, it seems to us that the problems are just about

where they were when we began at them, it may be well in the October flush of endeavor to recall the fact that the old questions are those which are after all the best worth solving and have been so considered by the greatest and the best for a longer period of time than a summer vacation. There are so few really new things that are worth working hard for—or, to put it the other way, there are so few things worth working hard for that are, in the last analysis, at all new. We may as well go on in our accustomed treadmill, the others are not very different, and the force expended in them all works in the same general direction. And the chances are that it is not a treadmill at all, but a bit of road-making with a number of diversions within easy reach. Of all others it would seem that the pursuit of letters is one which brings its own rewards and which would need fewer incitements than any other. But a trifle of attainment along these lines is apt to bring a repose as of achievement, perhaps quite as often as to create an enthusiasm for the scaling of further heights. We have found so much satisfaction in a slight enlargement of our mental horizon that it is difficult to believe that it is not enough, and that there is need of a greater expenditure of effort. It is a consequence of our human inclination toward that error that pursues us from our block houses to the latest stone laid in our temple to learning—that of considering the end everything and the means nothing—that of forgetting that the pleasure of learning is one that may be ours forever, that the looking back on that which we have learned is at best a transient and a colorless joy.

A DANGER to University Extension that has threatened it always is the satisfaction that comes with the first accessions of knowledge; it is as if a field of study could be "done" and disposed of, by one rapid survey—as a tourist does a foreign town—that the student may be left with a comfortable sense of achievement, independent of pleasure or profit in the doing. Another danger has existed in the restlessness which turns with eagerness to a new project and as willingly abandons any undertaking which is no longer novel. In so far as these

dangers seem to threaten less ominously, the friends of University Extension may take heart; and it is pleasant to be able to say that with every year the purpose to work seriously and with continuity seems to be taking stronger hold of the centres. The meeting of class leaders at the close of last winter's session was impressive as showing how large a number were seeking something more in University Extension than entertainment or merely superficial knowledge. Another gratifying indication is the fact that before the first of September this year there were over fifty per cent more engagements for courses than at the same time last year. This does not mean necessarily that the number of courses for the coming winter will be greatly in excess of those of other seasons; it does mean, however, that the centres are keen to go on with the work and anxious to have full time for preparation. The Kensington centre, where Mr. Shaw aroused so much enthusiasm last Spring, has arranged for two courses and is contemplating a third. A class from this centre has studied all through the summer. The colored centre in Bainbridge street is to have two courses. At Association Local centre, Dr. C. G. Child continues his lectures of last year with a course on 'Seventeenth Century Literature.' Mr. Hilaire Belloc will follow with 'The French Revolution,' a course particularly interesting as coming after Mr. Shaw's course on 'The Puritan Revolution.' Mr. Graham Wallas will lecture on 'The History of English Institutions,' treating social and political questions historically. Lectures will be given at not less than ten places in Philadelphia, and in many towns and cities of Pennsylvania, in New Jersey, Maryland, Delaware, Maine, and Massachusetts.

MR. HILAIRE BELLOC has already made many friends by his brilliant lecture on 'The Roman Basis of our Civilization,' which opened the summer meeting, and his course on 'The French Revolution,' which attracted fine audiences on five hot evenings of July. By reason of his French birth, his service in the French army, and the fact that he is an owner of land in his native country, he is a Frenchman, and is able to look at history from the point of view of his countrymen; he under-

stands their modes of thought and has entered into their life and observed their traits as a foreigner rarely can. With an education almost entirely acquired in England, with many friends among the leaders of English thought, and with access to all degrees of English society, he is sufficiently an Englishman to be able to interpret the spirit of France for English speaking people. He believes in the strength and stability of French institutions and of the French nation; and he finds a basis for stability—notwithstanding the socialistic vagaries of some manufacturing neighborhoods—in the civic virtues born of the private ownership of property as exemplified in the subdivision of land. Mr. Graham Wallas comes to this country for the first time. He is an older man than Mr. Belloc, tall, slight, of fine presence, with a charming manner and a particularly pleasing voice. He is an experienced Extension lecturer, and is said to make interesting any topic upon which he speaks. He is M. A. of Oxford, and took honors at University College. He was one of the Fabian essayists; he is a progressionist member of the London School Board; and he is reputed to have done more original work in the study of English social and political life than any other man in England. Mr. Wallas and Mr. Belloc will probably look at social questions from such entirely different points of view as to enhance very much the interest which either of them alone is sure to excite.

THE University of Wisconsin has recently declared its determination to offer, as a partial equivalent for resident study, courses of instruction by correspondence. This plan is intended to meet the wants of those who are unable to attend lectures as regularly enrolled college students and who yet desire the guidance of competent instructors. If the students by correspondence intend to enter upon resident study, they are allowed to count the work done at home as part of the course leading to their graduation. Not more than one-half the required work for a Bachelor's or a Master's degree, nor more than one-third for a Doctor's degree, may be performed by correspondence. Examinations must be passed on all work done by correspondence, before it will

be counted as part of a course for graduation. Two plans have been adopted as methods of instruction, one formal, the other informal. The former, designed more especially for those taking undergraduate courses, is carried on by means of "printed instruction and question sheets." In these certain work is assigned, suggestions and explanations are given, and questions propounded; the student is to answer the questions and return them to the University instructor. They will be directly sent back to him with the necessary corrections and suggestions. The informal method, intended for advanced students, consults the individual needs of the student, and courses are outlined which he is to follow. A thesis may also be required to test the student's progress, and his ability to pursue independent research.

The beneficial results obtained by an extra-mural course, when such an institution as the University of Wisconsin takes it in hand, are obvious. Not only is the influence of the university extended throughout the surrounding country, commanding it to the people, but the nobler object is served of bringing to the masses advantages which could not otherwise be obtained. It will give many persons an idea of what is meant by a university education, and very often will lead to their entering upon regular courses of study within the college walls.

THE essays written in competition for the prize offered by THE CITIZEN for the best answers to Mr. Saintsbury's paper, 'Thoughts on Republics,' have been read by a committee appointed by the Board of Directors of the general society. The best six have been selected and referred to the judges, Mr. W. Hudson Shaw, and Mr. Edwin D. Mead, editor of *The New England Magazine*, President of the Twentieth Century Club, and Director of the Old South Work in Boston. They have passed through Mr. Mead's hands, who speaks of them as individually good and nearly even in quality. Mr. Shaw now has them, and a decision may be expected shortly, when the awards of the judges and some of the essays will be published in THE CITIZEN.

**Four Years' Experience in the Extension of University Teaching by the University of Chicago.**

Much interest has been manifested in the Extension work of the University of Chicago from the beginning, primarily because it is the first educational institution to officially incorporate within itself the Extension idea, and make systematic provision for carrying it out. Before the opening of the University the division was organized on a broad basis, and provided for the extension of university teaching in three different ways, namely, through lecture study, correspondence study, and class study. A secretary was placed in charge of

was received with a degree of favor and enthusiasm characteristic of the introduction into a community of a new and powerful movement. Thus, while the University has given during the past year instruction to nearly two thousand resident students, during the same period twenty-seven thousand received instruction through the Extension Division.

Through the Lecture-study Department the University has provided for the needs of those communities where a considerable number are interested enough to attend the lectures, even though but a small per cent of the audience do the work outlined by the lecturer. The progress of the work of this department is exhibited in the following tables:

**THE LECTURE-STUDY DEPARTMENT.**

Table No. 1.\*

Quarter.	No. of Centres.	No. of Courses.	No. of Lecturers.	Average Attendance at Lectures.	Average Attendance at Class.	Average No. of Weekly Papers.	No. Examined.
1892-3 Autumn.....	31	88	11	10,070	3,838	296	207
Winter.....	52	83	20	1 <sup>1</sup> ,443	8,217	415	273
Spring.....	2	2	2	215	30	1	1
<b>Totals.....</b>	<b>— 67†</b>	<b>— 123</b>	<b>— 21</b>	<b>— 26,728</b>	<b>— 12,085</b>	<b>— 712</b>	<b>— 481</b>
1893-4 Autumn.....	33	36	17	5,129	2,880	128	88
Winter.....	35	44	16	7,059	4,224	309	92
Spring.....	9	9	4	1,875	1,305	96	53
<b>Totals.....</b>	<b>— 72†</b>	<b>— 33</b>	<b>— 17</b>	<b>— 14,063</b>	<b>— 8,409</b>	<b>— 583</b>	<b>— 213</b>
1894-5 Autumn.....	62	65	18	11,968	8,225	Very few centres reported.	Examinations discontinued except for twelve lecture courses.
Winter.....	48	52	17	9,724	8,164		
Spring.....	10	11	3	2,065	1,386		
<b>Totals.....</b>	<b>— 95†</b>	<b>— 128</b>	<b>— 23</b>	<b>— 23,757</b>	<b>— 17,775</b>		
1895-6 Autumn.....	61	71	24	14,980	7,855	Very few centres reported.	Examinations discontinued except for twelve lecture courses.
Winter.....	41	45	18	9,615	4,005		
Spring.....	4	4	2	750	500		
<b>Totals.....</b>	<b>— 81†</b>	<b>— 120</b>	<b>— 30</b>	<b>— 25,345</b>	<b>— 12,360</b>		

Table No. 2.\*

Year.	Syllabi published.	No. of twelve lecture Courses.	Centres active in 1895-6, showing year organized.	Centres organized, but active only one season.	Average No. of Lectures per Centre.	Courses taken in Chicago.	Centres active in Chicago.
1892-3.....	37	0	19	19	11.01+	71	24
1893-4.....	17	6	8	10	6.92—	37	23
1894-5.....	15	6	25	31	8.01—	29	19
1895-6.....	21	6	29	—	8.89—	41	23
<b>Totals.....</b>	<b>— 90</b>	<b>— 18</b>	<b>— 81</b>	<b>— 60</b>		<b>— 178</b>	<b>— 45††</b>

\* In the above a course of six lectures is regarded as the unit, a twelve-lecture course being counted as two courses.

† Actual number of centres active during the year.

†† Total number of centres organized in Chicago.

each of these separate departments, and the work was carried on with the energy and vigor which has characterized the policy of the entire institution. It has been found that in Chicago and the surrounding communities thousands of people, unable to avail themselves of the privilege of residence work, are yet anxious and waiting for an opportunity to be brought under the stimulating influence of college and university teaching. From the beginning the work has prospered, and during the first year the Lecture-study work especially

It will be observed that, during the first year, the number of courses given was 123, while, during the second year, there were but 83; and also that the average attendance at lectures in 1892-'93 was 26,728, while the following year it fell to 14,063. It will be further observed that quantitatively the work of this department reached high water mark during its first year. This remarkably large attendance can no doubt be in great part accounted for, as before suggested, by the novelty and charm attending the inauguration of a

movement. In addition to this, the falling off in attendance and number of courses during the year 1893-'94 was largely due to the following causes:

1. The financial panic of 1893 not only rendered it almost impossible to organize new centres, but likewise made it equally difficult for many of the older centres to continue the work begun the year before. 2. The presence of the World's Columbian Exposition seriously affected the work of 1893-'94. This is most clearly shown by a comparison of the number of courses taken in the city of Chicago in 1892-'93 and 1893-'94. In the former year the twenty-four active centres within the city took seventy-one courses, while in the latter the twenty-three active centres took but thirty-seven courses. During the entire Autumn Quarter but little work was done in the city. The business depression, following the financial crisis of 1893, has continued to affect the Extension work to a marked degree. Despite this influence there has been during the past three years a gradual and what appears to be a permanent growth.

Another effect of the financial crisis from which the Extension work has not yet recovered is shown in the average number of lectures per centre. Many centres which, during the first year, were enabled to arrange for two or three courses of six lectures each have, since that time, taken but one course annually. Beginning in 1892-'93 with an average of 11.01 lectures to a centre, during the next year the average fell to 6.92 and then rose to 8.01 in 1894-'95, and to 8.89 in 1895-'96.

The total number of points at which lectures have been given is 169. Sixty of these centres, if centres they may be called, were active during but one season, and fifty-six of them took but one course each. A large percentage of these were never organized as Extension centres, and many of them never expected to take but the one selected course.

Some of the courses have been given under the auspices of the Church Societies, others of Public Library Associations, others of Social and Literary Clubs, but far the greater number have been given under the auspices of local societies organized for the Extension of University Teaching.

The University of Chicago has elaborated a system of Correspondence-study for the benefit of those residing where it is impracticable to organize Lecture-study or Class-study centres, or for those who desire to pursue lines of work to which the methods of the former departments are not adapted. Non-resident correspondence work of a somewhat popular nature has been carried on in this country for several years past by different

organizations, some of which have met with a marked degree of success. The following extract from a recent report made by Mr. Newman Miller, Secretary of the Correspondence-study Department of the University of Chicago, will indicate the growth and extent to which this work has been carried on during the past four years:

"The work of the Correspondence-study Department of The University of Chicago has always been maintained upon an equal footing with that of The University proper. This close relation has deprived the work of what might be called popularity, and for this reason the enrollment has never been as large as might be expected for work of this kind. The following statistical table will be of interest with reference to the development of the work in connection with The University of Chicago for the past four years:

	1892-3	1893-4	1894-5	1895-6
Number courses in progress	28	29	34	87
Number instructors engaged	13	17	27	44
Number students not matriculated				
Number students regularly matriculated	634	520	178	138
Number students regularly matriculated	61	153	202	288

"It will be noticed from the above table that the number of matriculated students has gradually increased, while the number of those not matriculated has gradually decreased. When the work of the Correspondence-study Department was inaugurated, there was a very large number of non-matriculated students enrolled in divinity subjects, especially in the Semitic languages and literatures. The much better advantages now afforded for residence study along these lines have served to greatly decrease the number who desire this work by the correspondence method. The persons most interested in the work have been teachers and ministers of the gospel, and a large majority of the students have been classified as 'special.' During the past year eighty-seven courses representing 680 minors have been in progress in eighteen different departments. The total yearly enrollment has been 426."

The University of Chicago, located within a large city with numerous small suburbs, finds favorable opportunity for the extension of University teaching by means of Saturday and evening classes. This opportunity has not been neglected. Numerous classes have been formed in convenient portions of the city and in these suburban towns for the purpose of pursuing the same lines of study that are followed by resident students. Classes for this purpose have been organized wherever six or more students were found desiring to pursue the same line of work. A large number of teachers and others whose occupations or circumstances have prevented regular matriculation and resident work have thus been enjoying for the past four years what may be regarded in no mean sense as the benefits of regular university instruction. The success of the work has been encouraging, the enrollment of the year 1892-'93 being 129 and that of the year just closed (1895-'96) being 1142. The progress made by this department, together with the various lines

of work represented, is exhibited in the following tables, taken from a recent report issued by the secretary of the department, Mr. I. W. Howerth:

desiring to do the reading outlined in connection with each course is increasing. In the Class-study Department it is hoped during the coming season to carry forward the work of

## CLASS-STUDY DEPARTMENT.

Table No. 1.

Quarter.	1892			1893			1894			1895			1896			
	Autumn	Winter	Spring*	Autumn	Winter	Spring										
Number classes.....	4	7	.....	11	1	15	13	29	39	24	21	84	51	35	25	111
Enrollment.....	50	79	.....	129	15	109	68	192	496	186	278	961	625	322	115	1142
Average number per class.....	13	11	.....	5	7	5	5	.....	12	9	12	.....	12	9	8	.....
Number instructors.....	4	7	.....	7	1	13	10	13	28	19	13	28	24	20	15	35

\* No courses offered.

## SUMMARY BY DEPARTMENTS.

Table No. 2.

	1892-3		1893-4		1894-5		1895-6		TOTALS FOR FOUR YEARS	
	Classes	Enrollment	Classes	Enrollment	Classes	Enrollment	Classes	Enrollment	Classes	No. Enrolled
Philosophy.....	.....	.....	2	10	4	34	2	27	8	71
Political Economy.....	.....	4	38	5	52	8	62	17	152	
Political Science.....	.....	2	4	4	21	1	2	7	27	
History.....	1	10	1	3	8	65	16	152	26	230
Sociology.....	.....	.....	.....	2	34	2	21	4	55	
English.....	2	17	5	46	11	109	19	379	37	651
Greek.....	.....	.....	1	3	3	4	4	19	8	30
Latin.....	2	38	3	34	11	78	12	221	38	371
French.....	1	11	1	4	6	26	8	33	16	74
German.....	.....	.....	.....	6	53	7	61	13	114	
Scandinavian Literature.....	.....	.....	1	1	7	.....	1	1	7	7
Mathematics.....	1	10	5	17	4	30	17	78	27	135
Astronomy.....	.....	.....	2	6	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	6
Physics.....	1	4	.....	.....	1	2	.....	.....	3	6
Chemistry.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	3	1	2	4	6
Geology.....	2	26	.....	.....	4	124	2	28	8	178
Zoology.....	.....	.....	1	14	3	66	.....	.....	4	80
Physiology.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	4	.....	.....	1	4
Biology.....	1	13	.....	.....	1	2	.....	.....	2	15
Botany.....	.....	.....	2	13	8	242	2	56	12	311
	11	129	29	192	84	960	111	1142	235	2423

The officials of the University of Chicago feel that they have reason to be gratified with the showing of the departments of this division. Though the results have not been in every instance what might be desired, yet the importance of the work is becoming more and more appreciated, and methods for securing a greater degree of efficiency are being gradually adopted. For example,—in the Lecture-study Department an especial effort is being put forth to increase the number of twelve-lecture courses, and to secure, wherever possible, sequence of courses. It is hoped, also, to increase, during the coming season, the number of Students' Clubs and Supplementary Classes. Between sixty and seventy courses have already been arranged for the season of 1896-97 and to some of these centres the traveling libraries have already been sent out. The early and many applications received for these libraries indicate that the number of people

single classes throughout the entire year in many more instances than have hitherto seemed practicable. A number of points are becoming recognized as permanent Class-study centres. In the Correspondence-study Department rapid progress is being made in increasing the number of regularly matriculated students. These matriculated students do work of the merit of which there can be no doubt. A large number of them take the examinations set by the University Examiner and secure credit on his books for the work done.

In the office of the Extension Division an effort is made to keep a complete file of all the Extension literature of the world; thus the Division is profiting not only from its own experience, but from the experience of kindred organizations wherever the Extension Movement has been introduced.

WALTER A. PAYNE.  
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### The Charity Problem in Philadelphia.

Public charity is official relief from funds raised by taxation, or left in trust to be publicly administered. It is the more conspicuous form of charity, and must needs be so in order to secure the best results in its administration. It does not always adjust itself rapidly to the changing requirements of the pauper problem, nor does it by any means adequately represent the best thought and the latest achievements of a population in dealing with its distressed, diseased, and unfortunate members. For this we must always seek the quieter channels through which private effort and funds are flowing.

Public charity at best performs a more or less perfunctory task, carries the rougher burden, too heavy for private shoulders to bear, and deals with a hopeless element in the social wreckage which must be provided for in a humane way, and prevented, if possible, from accumulating too rapidly or contaminating the closely allied product just outside the almshouse door. In order to measure the real charitable activity of a city we should rather study the thousand little variations in private relief. We want to catch the spirit that pervades the whole, and understand the methods which in modified form are common to the majority of cases.

In the recently published 'Civic Club Digest',\* we find described over 300 relief-giving organizations, and 250 educational ones doing charitable work. There are also 675 churches enumerated, all of which stand for some work of both types. Over 1200 organizations would seem like a large quota for one city, and yet this list lays no claim to completeness.

Many of the Philadelphia charities are very old, and the special needs to which they individually minister often reflect the interests of their Quaker founders. Many have adequate resources and liberal endowments; others, a coterie of supporters—certain families which for generations have patronized a particular charity, and would as soon think of discontinuing the annual check or changing its destination as of leaving their white doorsteps unscrubbed, or of allowing their family pedigree to be forgotten. Such charities pursue the even tenor of their way, little troubled by modern methods, reform gatherings, or charity organization conferences. These things are part of the local color which our friends in

other cities and our newly acquired workers from other fields find both interesting and perplexing.

In this paper we shall discuss only two aspects of the problem of private charity: (1) The extent to which principles of organized charity actually govern the work of to-day; and (2) The need of an adequate, general, relief-giving agency.

The spirit of co-operation and rational differentiation of functions makes slow progress in the very field in which we should expect it to flourish. I fear that it has taken less root in Philadelphia than in other cities. The Charity Organization movement was started in England about 1869. It spread to this country in 1877, when the first society bearing its name was started in Buffalo through the instrumentality of Rev. S. Humphreys Gurteen, an English clergyman stationed in that city. Rev. Charles G. Ames had already, in spirit if not in name, established in Germantown, at an earlier date, a society modeled on the London Charity Organization Society. The Germantown society became one of the ward organizations of the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity, when it was founded in 1878. Boston and New Haven also organized societies in that year and several other cities followed in 1879. There are now probably over one hundred societies in the United States.

The Charity Organization Society was never intended to be in any way a newcomer to rival existing charities or compete with them. It is a new, vital force meant to permeate existing organizations and to quicken and co-ordinate their work. It is a new movement, not a new organization, and cannot be understood in any other light. Its three-fold mission comprises: *Co-operation* and mutual helpfulness among existing charities; *Investigation* as a basis for the elimination of fraud and for the securing of suitable and adequate relief; *Restoration* of the pauper to normal working-power—the only rational end in relief work.

In accomplishing the first ideal the Charity Organization Society should justify its cost to the community and more than repay the same, by saving duplicate relief and by increased efficiency in the other societies. In fulfilling the second it restores confidence to the benevolent, who so often become discouraged by the sharp practices of professional frauds; and it satisfies the rightful desire of every intelligent dispenser of charity to know for what his money is going and what it accomplishes. With this purpose even measurably fulfilled, the Charity Organization Society will entrench itself permanently in the trust of the community and will not fail of support.

\*'Civic Club Digest of the Educational and Charitable Institutions and Societies of Philadelphia.' Compiled by a Committee of the Social Science Section of the Civic Club, with an introduction on 'Social Aspects of Philadelphia Relief Work,' by Samuel McCune Lindsey, Ph. D., Philadelphia, 1895. Civic Club, 1301 Spruce street. Pp. clxxiv, 201.

If it pursues diligently the third ideal, and is ever showing us with scientific precision how far our work is really restoring to health and independent manhood and womanhood the shiftless and unfortunate with whom we have to deal, it becomes an indispensable factor in our midst.

How necessary is the admonition to withhold that which could work naught but harm! and again we must be more often reminded, perhaps, of the question of the aged apostle: "But whoso hath this world's goods and seeth his brother have need, and shutteth up his bowels of compassion from him, how dwelleth the love of God in him?" There are many cases where petty driblets given rather to satisfy or dismiss unpleasant suggestions of conscience are so inadequate that they are even more harmful to the recipient than an entire withholding of alms. Such questions can be determined only in the light of full and reliable information about the applicant, together with mature reflection and good judgment. Are men so busy with getting and doing that they have no time for such things? Must their lives be dwarfed on that account? Shall they dismiss all charitable impulses? Not if a good charity organization society is doing its work. It is its work to supply such information, to study cases, and to help guide and direct alms.

I repeat: The value of such a society consists less in its material outfit than in its spirit. In some cities the spirit of the movement prevails in the various organizations, though no central society exists. In others, the machinery is there in the shape of offices, records, and tools, but the spirit is wanting and the work is not done.

The public rarely understands the real work of the Charity Organization Society, unless a ceaseless educational campaign is sustained. Even the officials of the society are often befogged on questions of fundamental principles, or wax indifferent to them. The sentence, "*It is not the business of this society to furnish relief, but to seek relief for worthy persons,*" should be graven on the minds of all. It cannot be too clearly nor too frequently impressed on subscribers, directors, officers, and applicants. Experience warrants us in saying that any compromise with this principle is fatal to the largest usefulness possible to a society.

The Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity was formed at a time when the enthusiastic interest of the best workers was aroused, and committed to its principles. Its aims and methods are stated in its Constitution as follows:

"First.—To reduce vagrancy and pauperism, and ascertain their true causes;

"Second.—To prevent indiscriminate and duplicate giving.

"Third.—To secure the community from imposture.

"Fourth.—To see that all deserving cases of destitution are properly relieved.

"Fifth.—To make employment the basis of relief.

"Sixth.—To elevate the home-life, health and habits of the poor.

"Seventh.—To prevent children from growing up as paupers.

"By system of registration to prevent imposture.

"By bringing about co-operation among all charitable agencies.

"By securing thorough investigation the most suitable action in all cases.

"By obtaining from existing charities the precise help needed; or,

"By giving relief when immediate aid is needed, and when all other sources fail.

"By a system of visiting which shall substitute friendliness for alms, and inspire to thrift, self-respect, and better modes of life.

"By careful study of the causes of pauperism, and of the best methods of dealing with destitution and degradation.

"By furnishing the community with information concerning the objects and methods of charitable agencies.

"By promoting, in all possible ways, the uplifting of the poor, by means of social and sanitary reforms, and by aiding and instructing them in habits of industry, thrift, and self-dependence."

The effect of direct relief-giving was not, at that time, clearly recognized. The plan for financial administration—whereby separate organizations were contemplated for each ward, <sup>†</sup> to be controlled by local directors, financially and otherwise independent of the central body—is open to criticism. It has led to much duplication in the appeals for money, and in other ways has been less efficient than a more centralized system would have been. This is a question, however, to which there are two sides. But no one who has really studied charity organization will approve the relief-giving clause in which we are told that the objects of the society are to be accomplished "By giving relief when immediate relief is needed, and when all other sources fail." A charity organization society which gives direct relief sooner or later fails to accomplish its purpose. Such relief defeats the true object of the society in three ways:

(a) By exciting the jealousy and opposition of other relief-giving agencies.

The amount of money needed to equip and sustain a society and its branches is not large, where there is no relief fund maintained. What is needed usually comes from sources other than those on which the relief societies rely for support. It is given, as a rule, by persons interested primarily in scientific work and social reform, often by those who refuse

<sup>†</sup> Twenty-four local associations were in operation on October 1, 1879, but several have since been consolidated on account of lack of support, and there are now but seventeen.

on principle to give to general charities. If there is a relief fund for "emergency cases," or for use "when all other sources fail," experience goes to show that, human nature being what it is, the "emergency cases" multiply with alarming rapidity, and "other sources fail" with increasing frequency. This means that larger sums must be raised and attention called to relief afforded in order to interest new contributors. The additional funds come from the clientèle of other charities, which are not slow to recognize the fact, and at once refuse to co-operate with the Charity Organization Society, and soon openly oppose it.

(b) The withdrawal of assistance and co-operation from other societies increases the need for relief funds on the part of the Charity Organization Society, and usually results in the reduction of the allowances of groceries, coal, etc., to a point at which inadequate relief is given.

(c) The giving of relief weakens the moral force of the corps of friendly visitors, and ultimately endangers the existence of such a body. Friendly visitors are the backbone of the Charity Organization Society. They are persons who volunteer to visit applicants for aid, to verify their statements, and to acquaint themselves thoroughly with their family life and surroundings, so that they can intelligently recommend to the society a course of action to be pursued. A good friendly visitor establishes intimate and kindly relations with the family visited, brings superior education and larger advantages to bear in sympathy, advice, and general counsel, and maintains this relation for an indefinite period, until the family is thoroughly independent or is broken up and placed in the care of the public authorities. The visitor is often regarded as a friend, and a bulwark against the cold-hearted world of business and necessity. If a family learns that the visitor has access to food and coal, by signing an order or writing a note to an officer of the society, such influence as that just described disappears at once. The experience must be felt to be appreciated. The results are no less ruinous in their effect on the visitors than on the families visited. The signing of paltry orders becomes a monotonous business for persons of sufficient calibre to make good visitors in the larger sense. A friendly visitor has his energies taxed from the start. He must rightly diagnose the case and then find such immediate relief as may be needed. He should seek help from some charitable society, church, or benevolent acquaintance, acting as a special pleader for one whom he believes worthy. Lastly, he has to determine when permanent relief is

necessary, how much is required, and where it can be found. Such work requires time, unselfish, hard work, and ingenuity. Model visitors do not flock ready-made to a society, nor are they easily obtained. There is, however, plenty of material for such workers, if it is sought out and trained. A society must first be able to command the respect of the community in the work it is doing, before it can draw and hold visitors of the right sort.

Other reasons than the relief-giving policy have doubtless operated to alienate from the Philadelphia Charity Organization Society the support of other bodies, and to diminish its influence over the charities of the city. Many of the older charities are very conservative, and are not ready even to discuss changes in their methods of work. To bring about needed reforms will require time, tact, and patience. Nevertheless, to my mind, the chief reason why the Charity Organization Society movement in Philadelphia is less effective than in Boston, New York, and Baltimore, is its relief policy and the reflex action of this policy on the society itself. In no one of the three cities mentioned do the corresponding societies give any direct relief. Mr. Robert Treat Paine, president of the Boston society, said to me not long ago: "Our Associated Charities Organization has not given one cent in direct relief since the day it was founded."

Let us turn in conclusion to the second question proposed at the outset, namely, the need of an adequate, general relief-giving society. Undoubtedly the work of the Charity Organization Society would be easier, and, in some ways strengthened, if there were a strong, well-endowed or liberally supported, central relief agency in Philadelphia, willing to act in close harmony with it. We have several societies like the Home Missionary Society, but none possessing the ample resources and far-reaching organization of the Boston Provident Association or the New York Society for Improving the Condition of the Poor. The Home Missionary Society spends effort in finding places for children, and in furnishing meals and lodgings—work which, under better co-operative methods, might be left entirely to the Children's Aid Society and the Wayfarers' Lodges, thus leaving its resources free for the distribution of food, fuel, and clothing. A determined and intelligent effort on the part of the Charity Organization Society might also secure the combination of trust funds for ends wiser than the present indiscriminate distribution of free soup. Even a cursory glance at the objects of many societies, enumerated in the 'Civic Club Digest,' will suggest the possibility of much fusion and strengthening of

existing forces. Even the lack, however, of adequate sources of relief is no justification of the Charity Organization Society in supplying the deficiency at the sacrifice of its own life-blood. Moreover, the need of a source of immediate relief in Charity Organization Society work is often exaggerated. The number of cases in which such relief is absolutely necessary before the applicant can be visited, and relief sought and obtained from private sources, is exceedingly small. Most persons who seem to fall in this category are more properly objects of discipline or belong in the wayfarer class.

A surprisingly large amount of excellent work is done by individual charities in Philadelphia, each operating in its own way, and often ignorant of what the others are doing. The most important problem in private charity at the present time is how to establish a central co-ordinating force. Such a force would make Philadelphia charity as a whole tell for its true worth, and would bring it in line with the best scientific efforts of to-day.

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#### The Bechstein Library and the City of Philadelphia.

Philadelphia is peculiarly rich in collections of books,—collections which have grown, not with a single impulse, but with the needs and prosperity of the city itself, as a bare enumeration of the most important libraries will show:

The Library Company of Philadelphia, "The mother of all North American subscription libraries," as Franklin called it, dating from 1731, and the outgrowth of the Junto Club of 1728; The American Philosophical Society Library (1743); The Library of the University of Pennsylvania (1749); The Library of the Pennsylvania Hospital (1763); The Library of the German Society (proposed 1766); The Library of the College of Physicians and Surgeons (proposed by Benjamin Rush (1787); The Law Library Company of the City of Philadelphia (incorporated 1802); The Academy of Natural Sciences (1811-12); The Athenaeum (1813); The Apprentices' Library (1820); The Mercantile Library (1821); The Southwark Library Company (1822); Franklin Institute (1824); The Pennsylvania Historical Society Library (1824); The Library Association of Friends (1834); Spring Garden Institute Library (1852); Philadelphia

City Institute Free Library (1852); Friends' Free Library and Reading Room (Germantown, 1869); The Philadelphia Free Library; and The Diocesan House Library, with its admirable scheme of library affiliation.

The supreme question now is how to make these collections of books most serviceable to the citizens of Philadelphia, so that each reader and writer shall be accommodated with the least expenditure of time and money, for to the investigator who consults a library professionally "*time is money.*"

At this chaotic stage of the question one thing in particular must be said: that the reading public needs to be instructed in the uses and methods of public libraries. This would obviate many of the abuses of public libraries. It would lead to the recognition of distinct classes of readers and books. Indeed, the University Extension could scarcely make a more useful addition to its work than a course on "*How the Scholar Uses a Library.*"

At least three classes of readers are easily distinguishable in a public library: the general reader, the teacher, the investigator.

The demands of the general reader on the library, though often most extravagant, are, after all, not urgent. To him seeking recreation and pleasure, it is not a matter of serious importance whether he have one book or another on a particular day; the chief thing is that he have some book within his range. Such a reader can easily adjust himself to the inconvenience attaching to a *circulating library*.

The second class of readers, representing a large contingent of citizens who daily dispense information in the public and private schools, in the pulpit, the press, and other avenues of popular education, have more serious claims on the libraries; as they draw from the standard works of reference and from the classics of the great literatures of the world. Hence, this material should be accessible in the libraries at all times, and never be allowed to go out into general circulation.

The third class of readers are those who make the books of which the libraries themselves are made—the writers and investigators, who require, in addition to the reference apparatus mentioned above, immediate, free, and constant access to large numbers of books and documents, often for long periods of time. This is the class of readers most often misunderstood by both the reading public and the untrained librarian. The scholar feels at once the atmosphere of a library, and is aided or retarded in his work according as the librarians are trained and scholarly, or ignorant and boorish in their attitude toward the investigator. The librarian of scholarly instincts welcomes the opportunity of aiding the scholar in

adding to the rich stores of knowledge, and gladly opens the treasures of the library to the scholar's inspection.

It is evident, then, that a city should have—in order to meet the demands of these various classes—either a *variety* of libraries, as is the case with Philadelphia, or one large *central collection* of books with different departments, as in the case of Boston with its Public Library. The latter arrangement is unquestionably the ideal disposition of a city's books, for it is an easy and inexpensive matter to establish branch libraries, if need be, containing popular reading matter. Indeed, that consolidation is the tendency of the times is evident from the recent developments in the city of New York.

From the time of Franklin there has been a tendency to differentiate between the circulating and scientific collections of Philadelphia. The first step in this direction was that of the American Philosophical Society in 1743, and the next that of the University of Pennsylvania, in 1749. With the years, the University Library has acquired many rich accessions in different departments, and under the present administration bids fair to become one of the most valuable collections in the land.

The most recent of the great collections added to the University Library is the Bechstein Library, consisting of about fifteen thousand volumes and three thousand pamphlets relating to the German language, literature, history, culture, and folk-lore, in all the representative periods and dialects. The Bechstein collection now completes the apparatus for prosecuting all important lines of study in the field of German language and literature in this original seat of German settlements in America. There were already two important German collections in the city proper: the Library of the German Society and the rich collection of old German prints in the Pennsylvania Historical Society Library. The former, containing a large and well selected collection of modern German authors, meets amply the demands of a circulating German library. The Bechstein collection, on the other hand, supplies the scholarly apparatus and the classical and standard material for advanced academic work.

The question has been asked whether the Bechstein books may be taken out by the general public. The answer is clear and simple, after what has been stated above concerning the use of libraries. The Bechstein collection is specifically for students and investigators, and, like all such collections, must be kept a reference library and not go into general circulation, if it is to render the greatest service. The books are, however, accessible to

the serious reader, who will be welcome at the University Library, where he may consult the books during the Library hours. Those who wish to take out German books may do so at the Library of the German Society by paying a small fee. Thus the Library of the German Society and the Bechstein collection complement each other; the one serving the purposes of a circulating German Library, the other furnishing the scientific material of a German Reference Library. At the University Library, as at the Library of the Pennsylvania Historical Society, scholars and investigators have the ready assurance that the library is there for their free use and not for the whims of the unschooled public, or for the revenue of the institution, or for the convenience of the librarians. And it is for this cause, for the free advancement of knowledge, that the donors of the Bechstein Library generously gave their money. It should be the pride of the city to give scholars free exercise of all the privileges in every public library under its charter, else what grounds for a charter?

This is the auspicious time for an epoch of awakening in German culture in the old German community founded by Penn and Pastorius, which stands to-day as the mother and foster-mother of ten million members of our national commonwealth.

What an opportunity for the Germans of Philadelphia, with the literary treasures of the Fatherland—the gems of the Minnesingers, the epics of the ancient heroes and of the courts of chivalry, the master-songs and shrove-tide plays of Hans Sachs, and the works of Luther and of Hutten, the *Messias* of Klopstock, the dramas of Lessing, the works of Herder, Goethe, and Schiller, the dreams of the Romantics, the *Lyrics* of Heine and Uhland, and the historical novels of Freytag and Dahn—to rekindle the flames of German thought at their new firesides in the land of their adoption, and thus lead the way in inaugurating a new era in American literature. At the time of the Renaissance the cry was: “Greek has crossed the Alps!” and all Europe awoke at the cry. Since 1848, in a peculiar sense *German has crossed the Atlantic* and all America is responding to the touch of a new culture.

Philadelphia has had its epochs of English and French influence—has at present its *Männerchor* for the cultivation of German song, its *Turngemeinde* for the exercise of German gymnastics—and now stands within sight of the union of German and American culture and the birth of a new literature.

M. D. LEARNED.

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### The London County Council and the Slum Problem.

In two years the London County Council will celebrate the first decade of its existence. When the time arrives for summing up the work of the Council, there will be presented a series of improvements in the older municipal institutions, together with a number of new ones to which the history of the metropolis offers no parallel. In fact, it would be difficult to find another instance, in the history of modern municipalities, in which such relative symmetry and order has been brought into an administration after a long period of "chaos of rates and chaos of authorities."

In order to understand the nature of the problems that confronted the Council, it is necessary to bear in mind the conditions which have accompanied the growth of urban life in England. The policy of *laissez faire*, which characterized the English administrative policy of the first half of the century, resulted in the overcrowding of the population in most of the cities in unsanitary tenements and other evils. The great number of back tenements made the prospect of permanent improvement almost hopeless. It is only within comparatively recent years that the building regulations in the larger cities have begun to meet the standards dictated by the conditions of modern city life and the teachings of sanitary science.

London and Glasgow were the two cities which suffered most from this unregulated development. It was not until late in the 70's that the government and the public were fully awakened to the dangers which these conditions involved, both to the moral and the physical welfare of the nation. The problem was all the more pressing owing to the fact that entire counties—such as Lancashire and Yorkshire—were developing the same conditions as the larger cities. In order to solve this one problem, something more than ordinary remedial measures was necessary. The Housing of the Working Classes Acts of 1875 and 1890 were looked upon as extremely radical measures. In fact their fundamental principle was regarded as a direct blow to the right of private property—a long step toward municipal socialism. To deal with single unsanitary dwellings was a palliative not a remedy. The only effective method was to give to local authorities the power to expropriate large areas making possible the rearrangement of streets and the complete reconstruction of the areas in question. Glasgow was the first city to enter upon this work on a large scale. Birmingham, Manchester, and some of the smaller cities also availed themselves of the powers given under the act. In London there

was no central authority sufficiently strong and commanding sufficient resources to undertake such work on a large scale. The creation of a central board in 1855, under the name of the Metropolitan Board of Works, was the first step toward giving the Metropolitan area such a central authority. Several improvements were undertaken by this board, but it was not until the creation of the County Council in 1888 that work was begun upon a large scale. Accompanied by a member of the sanitary department and by Mr. John Burns, a member of the County Council, I had the opportunity of visiting the various areas in which the Council has availed itself of the provisions of the act. Briefly stated, the Council has the power to determine the area needing improvement, and, upon the approval of the Home Secretary (the Local Government Board in the case of other cities), may expropriate all the property within the area. The largest of these areas which the Council is engaged in clearing and rebuilding is known as the "Boundary Street Area," situated in the centre of one of the worst districts in the east end, Bethnal Green. Something over fifteen acres of densely populated and closely built up land were expropriated and completely cleared, with the exception of one or two public schools. In making the plan for rebuilding, the Council adopted the radial system. The new streets are to converge to an open space, which will serve as a recreation ground. Less than half of the old area is to be built upon, the new streets having a width of forty and sixty feet. Perhaps the most interesting portion of the scheme is the nature of the building which the Council is erecting. Model tenements, planned with a view to providing low-priced but cheerful and healthful dwellings for the displaced population, are approaching completion. In fact, some are already occupied. The two, three, and four-roomed tenements offer accommodations which compare favorably with those of apartment houses for a very much wealthier class. A common laundry equipped with the latest machinery, a general library and recreation room, partaking of the character of a club house, are to be provided for the common use of the tenants. The municipality, as landlord, will provide the music in the park and perform other services usually left to the haphazard initiative of individuals. The surrounding property, which is still of the old character, stands in striking contrast to the model city which the Council is constructing. The effect upon landlords cannot fail to be salutary. When one stops to consider what this change in environment will mean to several thousands

of the population, the outlay would seem to be justified. The Council hopes, however, to make the investment yield the ordinary rate of interest. Work of a similar character has been carried out in the Strand District, East Greenwich, Deptford; and other districts are under consideration. This is but one of the many important problems which the County Council has definitely and successfully grappled with. In the final judgment of its services, its dealing with overcrowded neighborhoods will certainly occupy an honorable if not the foremost position in the record of this remarkable body.

L. S. ROWE,

*University of Pennsylvania.*

### A Method of University Extension Teaching.

The editor of THE CITIZEN has asked me to give an account of a class in Ethics which I conducted last winter on a method differing in some respects from that usually employed in University Extension classes.

Thirty-six men and women of Middleborough, Mass.,—the Superintendent of Schools, the Principal of the High School and his teachers, a few High School scholars and Grammar School teachers, a college graduate or two, the rest ladies and gentlemen of liberal interests—composed the class. We met one evening a week for three months in the Public Library, which the town generously offered for our use.

The field covered by the course,—‘A Theory of Morals’ was its general title,—may be understood from a list of the subjects of the several lectures :

- I. The Province of Ethics.
- II. The Technology of Ethics.
- III. The Nature of Goodness.
- IV. The Nature of Virtue.
- V. The Problem of Freedom.
- VI. Conscience.
- VII. Duty.
- VIII. Egoism.
- IX. Altruism.
- X. Relations.
- XI. Sanctions.
- XII. Casuistry.

The notes from which I spoke were mainly those taken by myself several years before while attending the Harvard graduate course (‘Phil. 4’) given by Professor Palmer. It would, of course, be absurd to pretend that I treated the subject with anything like the completeness possible in a college course, but so far as I took the class, we did, I feel sure,

as serious and thorough work as is done anywhere. It was an invariable condition of admission to the lectures that the listener should take full notes. The lecturer spoke with sufficient deliberation to allow this, and frequently paused to dictate passages for literal transcription.

The notes were submitted to me week by week. Besides correcting them, where corrections were needed, through appended criticisms, I advised the students, individually, on the art of taking notes as well as on the subject-matter of the course. The notes, I am bound to say, surprised me in their copiousness and faithfulness; they gave, in nearly every case, evidence of careful and discriminating attention, and those which at first were poor and meagre steadily improved.

The spectacle presented during the lecture hour was entirely unlike that usually given by University Extension classes. No one sat listening merely; everyone was at the same time hard at work making a record of the lecture. The physical effort required for an hour’s hard writing is not light, nor can the straining of the attention necessary for conscientious note-taking be otherwise than severe; and yet the attendance, shown by the roll-call, averaged, for the twelve lectures, 31.22 out of the 36.

At the close of the course, an examination was given, the results of which were most satisfactory. The questions proposed may be of interest, in that they indicate, in a way, the scope of the work done. They were framed to draw out definitely the students’ knowledge of the instruction given, not to afford them an opportunity to discourse upon the subject of Morals.

“1. Discriminate between Ethics and (a) History, (b) Law, (c) Aesthetics, (d) Religion, (e) Common-Sense.

“2. What distinguishes a Person from a Thing, and what is the ethical value of the distinction? Discriminate between Goodness and Virtue; Evil and Vice.

“3. What part has Pleasure in an ethical scheme of life?

“4. Object to the popular doctrine of the Conscience.

“5. You have, under great temptation, declined to steal. Reconcile the elements of Naturalness and Consciousness (as the terms are technically used in this course) present in this praiseworthy act.

“6. What point made in this course has most impressed you? Offer upon it an original discussion of not less than 400 words.”

It is not my purpose to do more than give an account of this class, and the method employed in its instruction. I do not present

this method as one any better than that now generally used; it is different from that in its attempt and in its results. It is not a popular method; it would never gather large audiences, nor indeed could it be adopted with large classes. But the trial at Middleborough has shown that it will interest and hold small classes. It can never be generally employed, so long as the expense of Extension courses has to be borne mainly by the centres; there was no expense connected with the Middleborough trial. But where the matter of cost is not a vital consideration, I am persuaded that something like it—I mean to say, a plan which provides for the taking of close notes by every member of the class—might often be successfully adopted.

WILLIAM BAYARD HALE.

### The Water Supply of Philadelphia.

The importance to a city of an abundant supply of pure water has long been recognized. More than twenty centuries ago Aristotle, in enumerating the essential requirements of a favorably located city, places the water supply in the first rank. "And as great care should be taken," he says, "of the health of the inhabitants, the first thing to be attended to is that the city should have a good situation and a good position: the second is that they may have good water to drink and this not be negligently taken care of; for what we chiefly and most frequently use for the support of the body must principally influence the health of it; and this influence is what the air and water naturally have, for which reason in all wise governments the waters ought to be appropriated to different purposes, and if they are not equally good, and if there is not a plenty of necessary water, that which is to drink should be separated from that which is for other uses."<sup>1</sup>

The varied and complex conditions of modern municipal life have in many respects rendered Aristotle's observations on urban requisites obsolete, but they have accentuated the vital importance of a pure and adequate water supply. The best authorities are now agreed that nothing short of utter financial inability is any excuse for not preserving the integrity of the water supply. Philadelphia began well and was the first city in this country to establish a public water service. The last annual report of the Water Bureau is the ninety-fourth, and during this period of nearly 100 years the department has been a source of net revenue to the city.

<sup>1</sup> Politics, Bk. vii., ch. xi.

### ORGANIZATION OF THE DEPARTMENT.

Before the present city charter went into effect in 1887, the Department of Water was under the nominal control of a Chief Engineer who received a salary of \$7000. He was chosen by councils who, through the joint committee on water, exercised full control over the department; which as it employed a large number of men—a number only exceeded by the employes of the gas department—furnished abundant and convenient "sinews of war" for the machine of the dominant party. The Chief Engineer thus describes its condition:

"The situation in 1883 was such as no community could afford to maintain, and unless remedied could only culminate in disaster. The department had for years been run as a political machine in the interests of individuals, and made the harboring place of henchmen who were quartered upon the city by the score and maintained at the public expense, although in many cases their services were entirely valueless, and in *all cases* political services and work of some sort were demanded as the price of appointment and retention. Honeycombed with intrigue and inefficiency, destitute of discipline or recognition of authority, disorder and waste prevailing, 'politics' had truly brought the service into a perilous condition, and the Chief Engineer harassed by his responsibilities, but unable to shake off the bondage that paralyzed his usefulness, proclaimed the danger and announced an impending water famine."<sup>1</sup>

About the time that the political horizon was the darkest, the clouds began to break away, and the reform movement, which culminated in the enactment of the Bullitt bill, began to gather considerable strength. An unusually large number of earnest, active men were elected to city councils, and Colonel William Ludlow, an engineer of national reputation, was placed at the head of the Water Department. It was well known that Colonel Ludlow was an independent in politics and accepted the position on the distinct condition that no personal or political consideration should be allowed to influence his action. There followed a short period of reform, during which the head of the department kept up a constant agitation for a purer water supply. It was during this period that a careful and scientific investigation of the available sources of a future water supply was made, the hydrographic division of the department established, and the policy of constructing subsidence reservoirs entered upon.

By 1885 political conditions had changed, the so-called reform element had largely dis-

<sup>1</sup> Rep. of 1885, p. 143.

appeared from councils, and the regular political machine resumed its wonted sway. With kind insistence, the changed conditions were explained to the Chief Engineer, and it was pointed out that, by "suitable modifications of past methods of administration," he might retain his position as head of the department. The department had been kept out of politics for three years and could no longer be spared, for the change in the national administration had closed the doors to several former strongholds. But it was hardly to be expected that the official who, assuming the position of head of the department, had laid down the rule that it is "particularly essential that every man should understand that his retention and advancement depend absolutely and solely upon the necessity for and value of his services to the department and that no consideration foreign to its welfare and proper administration will avail either to discharge or retain him;" would consent to debase the service merely to retain an office burdened with responsibilities. Accordingly he sent in his resignation. The next year the Bullitt bill went into effect and the city entered at once upon the construction of three large reservoirs with an aggregate capacity of more than a billion gallons and costing several million dollars. No more unfortunate circumstance could have happened to the Water Department of Philadelphia than the displacement of an eminent and skilled engineer of undoubted probity and independence, just at the time when the city was undertaking this gigantic task, requiring engineering skill of the highest order and involving the expenditure of so vast a sum of money. It was the more unfortunate that his successor was willing to accept office, weighed down by personal and political obligations, which a far stronger man was unwilling to attempt to carry. The city paid a heavy tribute indeed to the spoils system in making the change. This single act bequeathed to it immense reservoirs badly planned and poorly constructed, costing more than two millions of dollars, and it is not yet known how many thousands more will be necessary to put them in a condition to hold water. One at least will probably ever remain a menace to life and property.

Under the Bullitt bill the Water Department became a bureau in the Department of Public Works, the Chief Engineer assuming the title Chief of the Bureau, with a salary of \$6000 per year. He is appointed by the Director of Public Works and his tenure is theoretically during good behavior. He has charge of all matters connected with the water supply of the city, including general oversight and control of all subordinate

officers, and the direction of the construction of reservoirs. He makes all necessary estimates and must certify all accounts, bills and contracts for materials purchased or labor performed under his direction.<sup>1</sup> He is of course subject to the orders and the control of the Director of Public Works, who must also sign all warrants.<sup>2</sup> But as of necessity the Chief of the Bureau is an engineer, the Director of Public Works who is not, must be guided by his advice in all technical matters relating to the water supply. The Director has full power to remove him.

Formerly Councils' joint standing Committee on Water had full supervision over the Water Department, and it was the duty of the Chief Engineer to submit all estimates, contracts, plans of construction, and bills for material to this committee for examination and approval. The committee fixed the water rates and, from the date of consolidation in 1854 down to 1885, the system of water charges and schedules was not acted upon by Councils.<sup>3</sup> The rates now in force were adopted by the Water Committee, January 13, 1885.<sup>4</sup> One of the several reforms which mark the administration of Colonel Ludlow was the equalization of the water rates. Intolerable discriminations had grown up during the period of 1854-1885, in regard to the price paid by large consumers. "Certain persons having 'influence' of some sort seem to have acquired a certain exemption from payment of water rents altogether."<sup>5</sup> One typical case will serve as an illustration of the many cases of discrimination that existed. Of two establishments using practically the same amount of water, 430,000 gallons per day, one paid \$4872 annually, the other \$10,922.

#### SOURCE OF SUPPLY.

Philadelphia, with all her other favorable conditions, is doubly fortunate in having at her very door a water supply not only sufficient for drinking purposes, but adequate to supply her industrial needs for generations to come. The Schuylkill not only brings the water into the very heart of the city, but also furnishes the power to pump a considerable portion of it. It was natural, therefore, that this stream rather than the Delaware should have been adopted as the source of supply at a time when the needs of the city were many times less than at present. About 94 per cent of

<sup>1</sup> Ord., October 3, 1854.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid.

<sup>3</sup> Rep. of 1885, p. 21.

<sup>4</sup> Brightly, Phila. Digest, p. 203.

<sup>5</sup> Rep. of 1885, p. 9.

the present supply is taken from the Schuylkill and the remainder from the Delaware.<sup>1</sup>

The future water supply has been under discussion from 1856 down to the present time. The publications, relating to the question prior to 1883, are practically worthless, owing to the insufficiency of the data upon which they were based. When Dr. McFadden, then chief engineer, raised the cry of a water famine in 1882, the city authorized an extensive investigation of the whole question of a future supply. This investigation extended over a period of three years, and the final report was made in 1886 by Mr. Rudolph Hering, who had charge of the engineering branch of the work. This investigation cost \$81,547.96,<sup>2</sup> but the information is so complete that the city is in a position, if it should decide to abandon or supplement the Schuylkill supply, to decide upon the best available source, without the expenditure of another dollar.

The general conclusions reached as the result of that investigation may be summarized as follows:

So far as quantity alone is concerned, the Schuylkill supplies sufficient for some time to come. For the ultimate supply the Delaware is the best available source. As the sewage of the city is poured into that river and carried by the tide for some distance up the river past the city, it is not desirable to take the water from any point below Trenton. For a gravity supply the water must be taken somewhere in the vicinity of the Water Gap, for not until that point is reached is the elevation of the stream sufficient to give the necessary fall. The expense of bringing water by gravity from the Water Gap was considered too great at that time to make the project feasible. The water at Point Pleasant, half way between Trenton and Easton and thirty miles from Philadelphia, was found to be extremely good and "almost comparable with the water of the Gap itself." All things considered, this point seemed the most satisfactory. The economical side is emphasized by the existence of an undeveloped water power sufficient to raise 120,000,000 gallons of water into the aqueduct daily during the low water stage.<sup>3</sup>

The cost of the aqueduct, pumping plant and the capitalized cost of pumping the water, was placed at \$19,622,543 if 210,000,000 gallons are pumped daily by steam, and at \$15,475,262 if 120,000,000 gallons are pumped by water power and the remainder by steam. At no place below Point Pleasant can a satisfactory supply of water be obtained at a less cost. Another advantage of the Point Pleasant

scheme is that, if the city should ultimately decide to go to the Water Gap for a gravity supply, the aqueduct already laid from Point Pleasant could be utilized.<sup>1</sup> It is unfortunate that the official reports should be so strongly colored by the personal views of the men making them, often without reference to the actual facts. When Dr. McFadden raised the cry of a water famine in 1882, it was not because he considered the Schuylkill inadequate, but on account of insufficient storage capacity. His successor, Colonel Ludlow, considered the supply ample, "even lavish." The first director of public works under the Bullitt bill also considered the Schuylkill supply fully adequate, not only for the present, but for immediate future needs. His successor, however, held an opposite view and colored his reports accordingly. The present director, in turn, believes the present supply fully adequate to all legitimate demands. Down to 1890 the records show that there had been only two years in which the Schuylkill did not furnish water enough, not only for the city's supply, but also for the purposes of the Schuylkill Navigation Company, which possesses valuable and extensive franchises. And there had never been a time when there would not have been an ample supply, had steam pumping only been used. In 1893, however, water flowed over the Fairmount dam only eighty-seven days during the year; at all other times, the excess water was pumped, or used to run the turbine wheels at Fairmount station. It is of course much cheaper to raise the water into the reservoirs by water than by steam power. The only question being whether there is sufficient water to do the pumping and meet the demands of the city at the same time. A few figures taken from the tables prepared for another purpose throw considerable light upon the question of the adequacy of the water supply, as they cannot be considered as manufactured for the purpose of establishing any particular thesis. The daily pumping capacity of the turbine wheels is little less than 10 per cent of the total pumping capacity, but the relative amount raised by water is 15 per cent. It takes thirty gallons of water, running through the turbine, to raise one gallon into the reservoir. Consequently there flowed through the turbine and down the stream more than four times the city's total consumption for the year.<sup>2</sup> The year 1895 was one of unprecedented drouth. The aggregate rain fall in the Schuylkill Valley was fifteen inches below the normal and two inches less than the least ever before recorded. The result was that a severe test was

<sup>1</sup> Rep. 1894, p. 506.

<sup>2</sup> Rep. of 1886, p. 26.

<sup>3</sup> Rep. of 1886, p. 303.

<sup>1</sup> Rep. 1886, pp. 269, 303.

<sup>2</sup> Rep. 1894, p. —.

put upon the Schuylkill supply. Notwithstanding this severe drouth, during which the water in the river reached the lowest point ever known, the department was not compelled to restrict the people in a legitimate use of the water. Although the amount pumped by water power was considerably less than usual, the records of the bureau show that there was not a single month during the year when water power was not used.<sup>1</sup> In view of these facts it can hardly be said that under normal circumstances there is any immediate danger of a water famine, due to the insufficiency of the Schuylkill supply.

A. A. BIRD.

(To be Concluded.)

### Correspondence.

#### The Middle States Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools.

To the Editor of THE CITIZEN :

SIR :—During recent years much effort has been spent in trying to bring about uniformity in college entrance requirements. Various associations have appointed committees for this purpose and much has been accomplished. The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland was the first to take the subject up in a definite manner when, in 1893, it appointed a committee of ten to draw up uniform requirements in English. This committee co-operated with a similar one from the New England association. Their recommendations were adopted by their respective associations and to-day, east of the Alleghenies, we have practically uniform entrance requirements in English.

The Middle States Association will hold its tenth annual convention at the University of Pennsylvania, on the Friday and Saturday following next Thanksgiving Day. The main part of that meeting will be devoted to a national conference on a group of important questions clustering about college entrance requirements. Some of the topics that will be discussed are :

- (a) The advanced age at which the average student now enters college;
- (b) The advanced age at which college men must now enter the professions, and the effect upon the individual and the community;
- (c) The tendency of men to omit the college course as college entrance requirements are

increased, that they may enter professional or technical schools direct from the secondary schools;

(d) Should the present standard of college entrance requirements be lowered through concerted action, and partial, even if not complete, uniformity of requirements?

(e) A partial reorganization of our public school system, with a view to its more perfect articulation with our colleges. Are American youth now obliged to "mark time" for a number of years in elementary and secondary education?

(f) Effects of lowering the age of entrance to college upon the undergraduate and the graduate.

The following named gentlemen have signified their intention to be present and take part in the discussion. President Eliot, Harvard University; President McCracken, New York University; President Patton, Princeton University; President Schurman, Cornell University; President Gilman, The Johns Hopkins University; President Draper, University of Illinois; Dr. William Pepper, Dr. Talcott Williams, Superintendent Edward Brooks, Commissioner of Education Harris; President Thomas, Bryn Mawr; Chancellor Holland, Western University of Pennsylvania; President Atherton, Pennsylvania State College; President Whitman, Columbian University; President Sharpless, Haverford College; President Warfield, Lafayette College; President Raymond, Union College; Principal Thurber, Morgan Park Academy (Ill.); Rev. C. B. Wood, Pittsburgh High School; Principal Levermore, Adelphi Academy; Principal Bancroft, Phillips Academy.

One session of the convention will be devoted to the topic: Shall Historical Studies be a Necessary Part of College Entrance Requirements? Professor H. Morse Stevens, of Cornell University, will read a paper on this subject.

Will you not kindly place this information before your readers.

J. Q. ADAMS,

Secretary of the Association.

Each man has, one time or other, a little Rubicon—a clear, or a foul, water to cross. It is asked him: "Wilt thou wed this Fate, and give up all behind thee?" And "I will," firmly pronounced, speeds him over.—George Meredith.

The danger of a little knowledge of things is disputable; but beware the little knowledge of one's self.—George Meredith.

<sup>1</sup> Rep. of 1895, table op., p. 504.

## Books.

THE MAKING OF PENNSYLVANIA: AN ANALYSIS OF THE ELEMENTS OF THE POPULATION AND THE FORMATIVE INFLUENCES THAT CREATED ONE OF THE GREATEST OF THE AMERICAN STATES. By Sydney George Fisher, B. A., Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott Company, 1896; 8vo., pp. 344 with map.

Mr. Fisher has the merit of putting into shape, almost for the first time, the results of careful and studious investigation of the elements that make up the people of Pennsylvania. The subject of his book is, of course, not a new one, for at a very early day there was earnest discussion as to the advantages and risks of the large German element that was making its influence felt in Penn's Province. Of late years the matter has been left largely to the post-prandial speeches of the societies, formed by the representatives of the successive tides of immigration; and the Scotch-Irish, Irish, Scotch, Welsh, English, German, Dutch, and French have each been vaunted as the most important element in the history of Pennsylvania. Sometimes a sermon, sometimes a song, but always strong laudation of the particular stock whose descendants were gathered together, stimulated a very honest if not always enlightened zeal to claim a share in the making of the Commonwealth which Penn had planned for all men. Mr. Fisher wisely takes a serious view of the conflicting claims of these warring nationalities, and endeavors to show just what part each of them and each of the religious sects that settled in Pennsylvania had in the making of the state. Penn himself was greatly in advance of the times in which he lived; and, coming himself of a mixed stock of English and Dutch, and joining the Quakers under very trying conditions, it was natural that he should make his colony the home and refuge of all nationalities and of all religions. His experiment was in the main a successful demonstration of his wisdom.

In addition to his study of these varied elements in the growth of Pennsylvania, Mr. Fisher gives a succinct account of the three important boundary controversies that threatened very seriously the limits of the state. Penn's dispute with the Baltimores, the Connecticut claim, and the controversy with Virginia, are all matters too little considered in these days of assurance as to our state borders, and it is well worth looking back on the possible danger that would have resulted from a decision that might have made the Maryland line north of Philadelphia, brought the Connecticut

colony right into the heart of the state, or set the western boundary east of Pittsburg. There is much more than merely antiquarian interest in these long drawn out quarrels, and Mr. Fisher has supplied an account not easily accessible in any of the ordinary histories of Pennsylvania. It is in this that he has given his book a special value for our schools as well as for all students.

Even if we do not accept all of Mr. Fisher's views or conclusions, we must give him the credit of having furnished a new and attractive account of the various active factors in the making of Pennsylvania, from the earliest Dutch and Swedish settlers down to the time of the increasing strength of German and Scotch-Irish immigration. The Welsh settlers, like the Swedes and the Dutch, have left notable descendants and good representatives, but they did not have much influence on the growth of the Province. The Germantown settlement—the first German settlement on American soil—was made up of a rather well-to-do people, of a much higher class than the immigrants that followed them, but it had little direct influence on the colony. It was the large number of Germans that, about 1702, began to come from the Palatinate and kept on coming from every part of Germany, where their peculiar religious tenets were made a matter of difficulty, that poured out over the Commonwealth. Their numerous sects, estimated at from twenty to over thirty in Lancaster County alone, found free and unrestrained enjoyment, and the whole body constituted in the main a population of good and prosperous farmers, quiet and orderly citizens. The question of their advantage to the Commonwealth was fought over by Franklin and James Logan, who found fault with their refusal to adopt the English language, and Dr. Rush, who praised them for bringing here the language and with it the knowledge and discoveries of the wisest nations in Europe; both sides were equally wrong in their anticipation. Mr. Fisher is perhaps unduly harsh in his opinion as to the characteristics of the German settlers, and their descendants who perpetuate many of the things that most distinguished their stock, but in the main he credits them with virtues that have done the state good service at all times.

He dwells with much more enthusiasm on the Scotch-Irish, hardy Calvinists, a good vigorous and fighting stock, ready to go to the border and to protect themselves against Indians and French, or against the laws of the proprietaries and of the commonwealth, when these were not to their liking. Their tale of notable men is a long one, and their share in extending the settlements westward and in

carrying church and school with them wherever they went, had a marked influence on the vigorous growth of Pennsylvania, and of all the states and territories into which they moved as soon as there was an opening for hardy adventurers and enterprising settlers. Mr. Fisher gives a brief account of the small stock of Church of England settlers in and about Philadelphia, and of the Welsh who gave so many now familiar names to places all along the lines of turnpikes and railroads running through neighborhoods in which they made homes which are in some cases still largely owned by their descendants. Few in number comparatively, they have left a store of legends and traditions that make an important part of our somewhat slender stock of material for the poet or the novelist who seeks local color as a background for his imaginative pictures.

Mr. Fisher gives a glowing sketch of the early development of science and arts in Pennsylvania, and he credits to each nationality, represented by the men who contributed to the common stock of knowledge a due share of the noteworthy advances made in the intellectual and industrial progress of the state. Thus the part of each is properly marked, although, of course, in these and in our representative men of to-day, there is usually found an admixture of blood of many of the various nationalities that enter into the making of the people of Pennsylvania, where, from the out-set, there was a much greater variety of race than in other colonies.

Mr. Fisher gives a succinct account of the lamentable and protracted struggle for the control of the Valley of the Wyoming by the Connecticut settlers on the one hand and by the State of Pennsylvania on the other. The final and satisfactory settlement of this long and bitter controversy showed that there had been an unnecessary and unjustifiable sacrifice of life and property. Fifty years of wrong-doing in a controversy in which neither side had good ground for their respective views, were finally ended in legislation and judicial decisions that ought to have been secured at a much earlier day. Against the poetry that has lent its charm to the history of the Valley of the Wyoming, is to be put the inscrutable folly that allowed it to be made the scene of disorder and acts of armed hostility, when, at the outset much better than at the end, some simple compromise might have been secured by common consent.

Of less poetic and legendary interest, but of much greater importance in the later history of the states and of the United States, were the boundary disputes with Maryland and Virginia; these Mr. Fisher has rescued from

the oblivion that was fast settling down upon them. The ultimate decision has received the sanction of time. Mr. Fisher entirely sustains the contention of the Penns and approves the line run by Mason and Dixon between Pennsylvania and Maryland which was finally secured only after eighty years of dispute, discussion, and delay. The boundary between Pennsylvania and Virginia was settled largely through the good sense and moderation of David Rittenhouse, and that between Pennsylvania and New York on Lake Erie was secured by a payment that was indeed cheap, if measured by the commercial and other advantages of securing a free access to the great chain of lakes and bringing them into easy reach for the business of the whole state.

Mr. Fisher's book is perhaps a trifle too controversial and at times even dogmatic, but in the main it is a sober and serious study of a branch of history too little cared for by the general chronicler. It does, however, really give the reader a much better insight into the real making of Pennsylvania than any mere declamation—such as has been heretofore too much in vogue—and it is likely to grow in the appreciation of students of local history and to be of use to them in dealing with the rise and growth of Penn's Commonwealth. Altogether, Mr. Fisher is to be congratulated on having chosen a subject which has not hitherto had justice done to it, on his exhaustive discussion of it, and on the freedom with which he has departed from generally accepted views. He has formed his own opinions and that only upon evidence that satisfied his mind. His summary of authorities will no doubt be examined by those who seek to controvert his conclusions where they do not square with national or local traditions and hereditary faith.

J. G. ROSENGARTEN.

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APOLOGY FOR THE LIFE AND CHARACTER OF  
THE CELEBRATED PROPHET OF ARABIA,  
CALLED MAHOMET THE ILLUSTRIOUS. By  
Godfrey Higgins, Esq. Pp. 118. New  
York: Peter Eckler.

Mr. Higgins seems to have been an English antiquary, born in Yorkshire in 1771; died 1833. The first part of his book appears inspired by one of those absurdly abusive and intolerant volumes that so frequently issue from the studies of English divines. The one in question was written by Humphrey Prideaux, Dean of Norwich, in 1696, and in it Mohammed is generally spoken of as the "Imposter." Mr. Higgins, in 1828, took up the cudgels for Mohammed, enthusiastically

endeavoring to make the prophet appear other than he really was, so that Mohammed might well have cried, "Save me from my friends."

There is a great deal of careful research in the book, the writer being unquestionably a scholar. That his conclusions are justified few would admit. That he stretches the truth dangerously is frequently apparent. The book is as much an intemperate and far from powerful attack on Christianity and on Judaism as a defence of Mohammedanism. There seems to-day little call for such a reprint when so many standard, modern works on the subject are readily to be had.

Some of the cruel surahs and some of those delivered to Mohammed to enable him to augment his harem being unpleasantly strong testimony to the lowering of his character after his success at Medina, Mr. Higgins accuses the Kaliph Othman, or Usman, of having tampered with the Kur'an, and bases many of his arguments on this theory. For so good a Mohammedan as Mr. Higgins appears to be, to thus doubt the Kur'an, a book that exists unchanged among all the numberless contending factions of Islam, seems sadly inconsistent. In truth, almost no other book has remained during nearly thirteen centuries with so pure a text.

Abu Bakr (A. D. 632) who united the scattered parts of the Kur'an into its present form, succeeded Mohammed and only reigned two years. He was a sincere believer in the divine origin of the Kur'an. Very many were then alive who could repeat great portions of it, as do the Arabs of to-day. The Kur'an itself contains frequent denunciations against those who either fabricate or conceal "anything in the name of the Lord." Abu Bakr seems to have used every possible care to get all the existing records and to avoid either error or omission.

There is equal reason to believe that Othman's (A. D. 655) Kur'an was identical with Abu Bakr's, with the simple reconciliation of unimportant variations. Othman has only been accused, and there is every reason to believe wrongfully, of leaving out certain portions of the Kur'an relating to Ali. This accusation is made by the Shi'ahs only, and it must be remembered that Ali succeeded Othman in the Kaliphate.

The assertion made frequently throughout the book that Mohammed was a Christian, is more difficult to deal with, as Christian is such a vague term. Surah V. 19, "Infidels now are they who say 'Verily, God is the Messiah Ibn Maryam'" (son of Mary), shows what Mohammed thought of the divinity of Christ. Mohammed always admits that Jesus was the last and greatest of prophets preceding him-

self; also, that Christ was sinless, while he, Mohammed, emphatically was not.

Mr. Higgins remarks on page 38, "almost immediately after his wife's death he (Mohammed) married three or four beautiful young women." The fact is, he had eleven wives, nine of whom were alive at one time, though the law allowed only four, and in addition, at least two concubines.

Mr. Higgins makes a point about Mohammed never claiming to be a prophet in the usual sense—that is, one who foretells future events, one inspired by God, and the like,—but to be simply a preacher. The dictating to him of the Kur'an, word by word from God, through the angel Gabriel as an intermediary, shows Mohammed as somewhat more than one of the 124,000 ordinary prophets (ambiya). In the Mishkat he is related to have said that there were nine special messengers, Moses, Jesus, and Mohammed being the last three. Six were dignified with special titles: Adam, the Chosen of God; Noah, the Preacher of God; Abraham, the Friend of God; Moses, the Conserver with God; Jesus, the Spirit of God; Mohammed, the Messenger of God.

Mr. Higgins had better have avoided the subject of paradise: the picture of the faithful entering therein, with their fathers, their wives, and their children, is very attractive, but the advent of the seventy-two exceptionally tempting houris, so graphically described, might cause more than a momentary embarrassment. These delights are not held to be figurative by Mohammedan doctors, neither by Sunni, Shi'ah, nor Wahabbi.

After all has been said Mohammed remains one of the greatest characters in history. Born in about A. D. 571, for forty years, till the Hegira, his life was blameless. Physically, also, a magnificent man, fully believing in his mission, he dominated all about him. After the Hegira, when persecution had ceased and success had crowned his efforts, like many others, alas, the reformer degenerates; his revelations are then to suit his purposes, enabling him to take an additional wife, do some deed of cruelty, and so on.

Finally as to his religion we have only space to quote from Renan: "Islamism, falling as it did on ground that was none of the best, has, on the whole, done as much harm as good to the human race. It has stifled everything by its dry and desolating simplicity."

C. E. D.

"It is no proof of a man's understanding to be able to affirm whatever he pleases; but to be able to discern that what is true is true, and that what is false is false—that is the mark and character of Intelligence."—Siedenborg.

## Book Notes.

Of the short stories which make up the volume entitled 'Embarrassments,' by Henry James, 'The Way It Came' is without doubt the best. The qualities which Professor Brander Matthews in his helpful essay, 'The Philosophy of the Short Story,' tells us are essential to this class of compositions—compression, originality and ingenuity, with the additional quality, not demanded, but much to be desired, fantasy—all have a place in this delightful story. That part of the plot which concerns the accidental hindrances to the meeting of the two central characters is not especially original, but the strange meeting and its results are both original and ingenious. It is not mere ingenuity, however; it is the work of a thorough artist. Admirable compression is shown in allowing the reader's imagination to summon up the circumstances that prevented the meetings of the predestined lovers during the first five years; and it is with true artistic skill that Mr. James has introduced his characters and has thrown over them the fantastic veil which is to be the cause of their final recognition of each other and the ground for jealousy in the mind of the man's fiancée. The story is intensely human in its pathos and even in its fantasy.

The other stories are on the whole disappointing. 'Glasses' is above the level of 'The Figure of the Carpet' and 'The Next Time.' It is a good character study of a vain, frivolous girl, who, with pathetic persistence, carries her vanity so far that it results in the ultimate destruction of her sight and of her means of gratifying the passion itself. Human interest is not wanting, but it is hardly strong enough to sustain the story. 'The Figure on the Carpet' had better be taken as a specimen of Mr. James's humor. It will thus escape conviction on the charge of violating the principles of the short story, and pass as an amusing *jeu d'esprit*. It is so artificially constructed that we get the impression that the author is testing his powers of ingenuity. Four deaths and two marriages, not to mention the passage of years and a journey to India and back, are a rather elaborate outlay for a short story, but when these events are held together by an interest that is professional rather than human, we are compelled to feel that we have not the short-story of which Professor Matthews speaks, but a story that is short and poor. Probably, however, Mr. James is amusing himself with either the conventional novelist, who sees so much in his creations, or the equally conventional critic, who seeks to divine, German-like, their secret meaning.

The volume is published by the Macmillan Company.

The Macmillan Company are publishing 'The Introduction to Public Finance,' by Professor Carl C. Plehn, of the University of California. It treats of public expenditure, public revenues, public indebtedness, and financial administration. By far the largest part of the book is devoted to a discussion of the different forms of taxation. The treatment is historical and analytical. The author has attempted to collate the positive results reached by the extensive researches which have recently been made in these lines both in this country and in Europe. It is intended primarily as an elementary textbook for colleges and universities.

'The Courtship of Morrice Buekler,' by A. E. W. Mason, is a clever story by a new man, who writes a good deal in the vein of Stanley Weyman. He also suggests Quiller Couch, and yet there is a flavor peculiarly his own. We get from the book an impression of a careful writer, who has studied the period of his narrative; we feel that the author has the imagination and invention necessary for a story-teller; and we see that he can write good English. With all these claims to our ap-

roval, we are by no means fully satisfied when we close the book. There is weakness somewhere; and we think it is in the conception of the leading characters, a man and a woman, neither of whom are worth enthusiasm or strong sympathy. Mr. Mason has not shown himself equal to so managing the purpose of the countess, and her fancy for Morrice, as to make her character intelligible. Morrice Buekler himself fails of the dignity of simplicity which he is meant to illustrate. It is safe to say, however, that the novel is very well worth reading.

We have received from Dr. G. M. Phillips, the principal, a copy of the 'History of West Chester State Normal School,' a pamphlet of sixty-three pages, published on the occasion of the quarto-centennial of the school. The 'History' is prepared by Dr. A. T. Smith, professor of Pedagogy, and contains a brief sketch of the development of the school, lists of the trustees, of the members of the faculty, and the alumni from 1871 to 1896. The account of courses of instruction, lecture courses, literary societies, and other organizations, shows the present status of the school. The directory of the alumni gives the occupations and the addresses of all the graduates.

Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will publish immediately Tennyson's 'Lancelot and Elaine,' and 'Other Idylls of the King,' volume IX of Rolfe's Students' Series. This book has been edited with the usual care of Dr. Rolfe, and is equipped with notes which include the history of the poems, the "various readings," and explanations of all obscurities, allusions, etc. It contains all the Idylls which are not included in volume VIII of the same series, 'The Coming of Arthur, and Other Idylls of the King.'

Longmans, Green & Co. announce as ready a new volume in the 'College Histories of Art,' entitled 'A History of Sculpture,' by Professors Allan Marquand and A. L. Frothingham, Jr., of Princeton College. The book is furnished with a frontispiece and 112 illustrations. Other volumes in the same series are 'A History of Painting,' by Professor J. C. Vandyke, and 'A History of Architecture,' by Professor A. D. F. Hamlin.

We notice in *The Book Buyer* that 'The Biography of John Gibson Lockhart,' by Mr. Andrew Lang, will be published in the autumn by Messrs. Charles Scribner's Sons of New York, in conjunction with Mr. J. C. Nimmo of London. Mrs. Maxwell Scott, of Abbotsford, has placed at Mr. Lang's disposal a large mass of unprinted matter relating to the literary contemporaries of Scott and his son-in-law and biographer, Lockhart.

Among other books announced by the Macmillan Company is the translation of a book by A. P. Tverskoy, written in Russian under the title of 'Sketches from the United States of North America.' Among others there are chapters on 'Ten Years in America,' 'The Presidential Campaign of 1892,' 'My Life in America,' 'Letters,' 'The World's Fair,' etc.

Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. further announce for immediate issue a new edition of 'A Primer of American Literature,' by Professor C. F. Richardson of Dartmouth College. This book will be thoroughly revised and brought down to the current year. It will be increased in size and will include an appendix containing the portraits and homes of leading American authors.

We learn from *The Book Buyer* that Professor C. G. D. Roberts has two books in the hands of Messrs. Lamson, Wolfe & Co., a 'History of Canada,' and a new volume of poems, 'A Book of the Native.'

Students of Church history will be pleased to know that the Macmillan Company further announce 'An Introduction to the History of the Church of England, from the Earliest Times to the Present Day,' by H. O. Wakeman, author of 'The Ascendancy of France, A. D., 1598-1715,' which was 'Period V,' in *Periods of European History Series*.

The Macmillan Company announce a new edition of 'The Life of John Cobden,' by John Morley, to be published in the autumn. Written by a man of such ability as John Morley and appearing in revised form at this time when attention is again directed to Cobdenism by the discussion of the Imperial Zollverein idea, the edition is opportune.

French criticism of English literature has been strengthened by the work of M. Léon Morel, entitled 'James Thomson: Sa Vie et Ses Œuvres,' published by Hachette & Cie. This contribution is an accurate and sympathetic treatment of Thomson and the new nature poetry of the eighteenth century.

*The Book Buyer* is also authority for the announcement that "three new volumes by Eugene Field will be published immediately by the Scribners—'Songs, and Other Verse,' 'A Second Book of Tales,' and 'The Holy Cross and Other Tales.' This last is a new edition containing five additional stories."

Professor Woodrow Wilson's 'Life of Washington,' which has already appeared in serial form in their *Magazine*, will shortly be issued by Harpers.

Mr. Henry James's new novel, 'The Other House,' will be published soon by the Macmillan Company.

'The Onananiche and Its Canadian Environment,' by E. F. D. Chambers, published by Harpers, is meeting with a most favorable reception.

We have received from the School of Agriculture of the State College an attractive pamphlet of twenty-four pages describing the courses in agriculture offered by that institution. This pamphlet can be had by addressing the Dean of the School, Dr. H. P. Armsby, at State College, P. O., Centre County.

We notice in *The Athenaeum* that "the first volumes of Messrs. Dent & Co.'s 'Temple Classics Series' will be Wordsworth's 'Prelude,' Bacon's 'Essays,' Sir Thomas Browne's 'Religio Medici' and 'Hydriotaphia,' and 'Gulliver's Travels.' The books will be printed in full, and suitable for pocket use. The series will be under the general editorship of Mr. Israel Gollancz."

'Deuteronomy' has appeared, with Introduction and Notes, as part of 'The Modern Reader's Bible.' It is edited by Professor R. G. Moulton and published by Macmillan.

It is announced that a complete edition of Mr. Kipling's works, in eleven volumes, is to be brought out by the Scribners. Each volume is furnished with a frontispiece designed especially for this purpose by the author's father, Mr. Lockwood Kipling.

The last editions of the Temple Shakespeare, issued by Macmillan and sold for forty-five cents, are 'Anthony and Cleopatra,' 'Macbeth,' 'Pericles,' and 'Cymbeline.'

## University Extension News and Announcements.

We have received the first edition of the *Prospectus* of the Brooklyn Institute of Art and Sciences for 1896-97. As complete lists as are now possible are announced of the addresses, concerts, readings, and meetings that are to be given in the course of the coming year. The inaugural address on Education and Democracy is to be delivered by President Booker T. Washington, LL. D., of the Tuskegee Normal College, Alabama. The Harriet Beecher Stowe Memorial Meeting will have as its principal feature an address by Miss Maria L. Baldwin, of Cambridge, Mass. The dedication of the Museum Building will be celebrated on May 1, 1897. At the closing meeting for the year, to be held on May 28, the anniversary of the birth of Louis Agassiz, Professor Nathaniel S. Shaler, of Harvard University, will deliver the address on 'Agassiz and His Influence on the Development of Natural Science in America.' In addition to the work of the departments, general courses of lectures will be delivered by well-known specialists in their various fields of research. There are also courses of illustrated lectures on 'Historic Old Towns of New England,' on 'The Religions of the Primitive Races of America,' and on 'Oriental Elements in European Literature.' General exhibitions are given in the various departments of Art and Science. In the work of the departments, which embrace nearly every field of study, the lectures are of a high order. The number of lectures, exhibitions, addresses, and Department Meetings amount in all to 500, and these are open to every member who has paid his initiation fee of \$5.00 and his annual dues of \$5.00.

The University of Wisconsin was the first institution in the Northwest to take up the work of University Extension, and it has continued it vigorously from its inception six years ago. During the year 1894-95 forty courses of University Extension lectures were delivered by eleven different professors from Madison, in thirty-one different cities and towns. During the year 1895-96 fifty-seven courses were given by nineteen different lecturers in forty-three different cities and towns. These fifty-seven courses were in sixteen different departments of study. For the coming year a number of engagements have already been made for courses to be delivered by University of Wisconsin lecturers, in towns as far east as Ohio and as far west as Minnesota. It is expected that during the coming season more University Extension work will be done than in any previous year.

We have received from the University of Wisconsin a programme of its Lecture Courses for 1896-97. The courses include lectures in Philosophy, Political Economy, Sociology, Political Science, History, Greek, Hebrew, Scandinavian Languages and Literatures, English Language and Literature, Astronomy, Chemistry, Geology, Biology, and Music. The lecturers are, with one exception, instructors in the University.

Recent letters from Mr. W. Hudson Shaw report him as not improved in health. Much as his American friends will miss him this winter, they can not regret that he is to be spared the fatigue of a season in the United States and have an opportunity for a long needed rest. We are able to say that Mr. Shaw looks forward with a special pleasure to coming here again for the season of 1897-8.

There have been received and put on sale at the office of the American Society thirty-six copies (all that remain of the first edition) of Mr. Hilaire Belloc's 'Verses

and Sonnets.' The price is seventy-five cents a volume. Mr. Belloe gave the inaugural lecture at the last Summer Meeting as well as a course of five lectures on 'The French Revolution.' He will lecture this winter on the French Revolution, Representative Frenchmen, and the Crusades.

Professor Albert H. Smyth, of the Central High School, offers the following additional lecture courses: (1) American Literature: Franklin, Irving, Poe and Lowell.

(II) Shakespeare: Illustrated.

(III) Elizabethan Writers: (1) The Renaissance; (2) Ben Jonson; (3) Beaumont and Fletcher; (4) Massinger, the Stranger; (5) The Post Elizabethans; (6) The Technic of the Drama.

(IV) Personal Memories of English Novelists and Notes on Modern Fiction.

Professor Joseph French Johnson is to deliver his course of lectures on 'The Principles of Money Applied to Present Problems,' before the Association Local, the Pittsburgh, and the Norristown Centres.

Professor Johnson's lectures are on 'The Theory of Money,' 'Monometallism and Bimetallism,' 'Bank Notes, Fiat Money, and Credit,' 'Prices and the Movements of the Precious Metals,' and 'The Present Problem.' The books which are specially recommended are, 'Money and the Mechanism of Exchange,' by W. Stanley Jevons (International Scientific Series or The Humboldt Library), 'Money, Trade, and Industry,' by F. A. Walker, (Holt); 'Money and Banking,' by Horace White, (Ginn); 'Principles of Political Economy,' by John Stuart Mill.

It is the lecturer's purpose to make his exposition and

argument intelligible even to hearers who lack systematic knowledge of the subject; yet some preliminary reading will add greatly to the interest and value of the course. All of the books mentioned are worth reading, but any one of them will furnish satisfactory preparation for the lectures. Whoever undertakes them all should begin with Hill and Walker.

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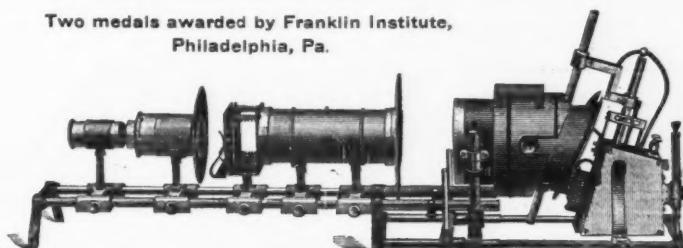
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## Lectures—Autumn, 1896.

At the time THE CITIZEN goes to press, the following Courses have been definitely arranged.

## CENTRES IN PHILADELPHIA.

CENTRE.	LECTURER.	SUBJECT.	DATES OF LECTURES.
Association Local, 15th & Chestnut sts.	Joseph French Johnson . . . . .	The Principles of Money Applied to Current Problems . . . . .	Oct. 7, 14, 21, 28, 31.
Association Local, 15th & Chestnut sts.	Clarence G. Child . . . . .	Literature of the Seventeenth Century . . . . .	Nov. 11, 18, 25, Dec. 2, 9, 16.
Bainbridge Street . . . . .	Thomas W. Surette . . . . .	Development of Music . . . . .	Nov. 4, 11, 18, 25, Dec. 2, 9, 16.
Church of the Crucifixion, Eighth and Bainbridge sts., Germantown, . . . . .	William H. Goodyear . . . . .	Italian Art and Paintings of the Old Masters . . . . .	Oct. 30, Nov. 6, 13, 20, 27, Dec. 4, 11, 18.
Kensington . . . . .	Thomas W. Surette . . . . .	Development of Music . . . . .	Oct. 2, 9, 16, 23, 30, Nov. 6.
West Park . . . . .	William H. Goodyear . . . . .	Debt of the Nineteenth Century to Egypt . . . . .	Nov. 9, 16, 23, 30, Dec. 7, 14.
41st and Westminster ave., West Philadelphia . . . . .	Louis Bevier . . . . .	Six American Poets . . . . .	Nov. 9, 16, 23, 30, Dec. 7.

## CENTRES OUT OF PHILADELPHIA.

CENTRE.	LECTURER.	SUBJECT.	DATES OF LECTURES.
Camden, N. J. . . . .	William H. Goodyear . . . . .	Italian Art and Paintings of the Old Masters . . . . .	Oct. 5, 12, 19, 26, Nov. 2, 9, 16, 23, 30.
Concord, Mass. . . . .	John H. Wright . . . . .	Every Day Religion of the Greeks . . . . .	Oct. 7, 14, 21, 28, Nov. 4, 11.
Elizabeth, N. J. . . . .	Edward T. Devine . . . . .	Representative Americans . . . . .	Nov. 5, 12, 19, 26, Dec. 3, 10.
Media . . . . .	Robert E. Thompson . . . . .	Political Economy . . . . .	Nov. 19, Dec. 3, 10, 17, 31, 1896. Jan. 14, 28, 1897.
Norristown . . . . .	Joseph French Johnson . . . . .	The Principles of Money Applied to Current Problems . . . . .	Oct. 1, 8, 15, 22, 29.
Pittsburg . . . . .	Joseph French Johnson . . . . .	The Principles of Money Applied to Current Problems . . . . .	Oct. 5, 12, 19, 26, 37.
Pittsburg . . . . .	B. C. Jillson . . . . .	Geology . . . . .	Nov. 9, 16, 23, 30, Dec. 7, 14.
Pottsville . . . . .	John B. McMaster . . . . .	Six American State Papers . . . . .	Oct. 7, 14, 21, Nov. 4, 11, Dec. 2, 16.
Riverton, N. J. . . . .	Albert H. Smyth . . . . .	English Literature . . . . .	Oct. 1, 8, 15, 22, 29, Nov. 5.
Sharon . . . . .	John W. Perrin . . . . .	France in the Nineteenth Century . . . . .	Oct. 6, 13, Nov. 3, 10, Dec. 1, 15.

17 Courses.

## Lectures—Winter, 1896—97.

## CENTRES IN PHILADELPHIA.

CENTRE.	LECTURER.	SUBJECT.	DATES OF LECTURES.
Afternoon Lectures (Special course), Association Hall, 15th & Chestnut sts.	Graham Wallas . . . . .	The Story of the English Towns . . . . .	Jan. 11, 18, 25, Feb. 1, 8, 15.
Afternoon Lectures (Special course), Association Hall, 15th & Chestnut sts.	Hilaire Belloc . . . . .	Representative Frenchmen . . . . .	Mar. 1, 8, 15, 22, 29, Apr. 5.
Association Local, 15th & Chestnut sts.	Graham Wallas . . . . .	The History and Character of English Institutions . . . . .	Jan. 5, 12, 19, 26, Feb. 2, 9.
Association Local, 15th and Chestnut Sts.	Hilaire Belloc . . . . .	The French Revolution . . . . .	Feb. 16, 23, Mar. 2, 9, 16, 23.
Bainbridge Street . . . . .	Edward T. Devine . . . . .	Representative Americans . . . . .	Dates to be Selected.
Church of the Crucifixion, Eighth and Bainbridge sts., Germantown . . . . .	Graham Wallas . . . . .	The Story of the English Towns . . . . .	Jan. 7, 14, 21, 28, Feb. 4, 11.
Kensington . . . . .	Graham Wallas . . . . .	The Story of the English Towns . . . . .	Jan. 8, 15, 22, 29, Feb. 5, 12.
South Philadelphia, Broad & Federal sts.	E. P. Cheyney . . . . .	Central Europe in the Nineteenth Century . . . . .	Jan. 21, 28, Feb. 4, 11, 18, 25.
West Park, 41st and Westminister ave.	Albert H. Smyth . . . . .	American Literature . . . . .	Jan. 11, 18, 25, Feb. 1, 8, 15.
Young Friends' Association, 15th and Race sts.	Hilaire Belloc . . . . .	The French Revolution . . . . .	Jan. 8, 15, 22, 29, Feb. 5, 12.

## CENTRES OUT OF PHILADELPHIA.

CENTRE.	LECTURER.	SUBJECT.	DATES OF LECTURES.
Baltimore, Md. . . . .	Graham Wallas . . . . .	The History and Character of English Institutions . . . . .	Jan. 9, 16, 23, 30, Feb. 6, 13.
Brooklyn, N. Y. . . . .	Graham Wallas . . . . .	The History and Character of English Institutions . . . . .	Jan. 6, 13, 20, 27, Feb. 3, 10.
Brooklyn, N. Y. . . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . . . .	Representative Frenchmen . . . . .	Feb. 26, Mar. 5, 12, 19, 26, Apr. 2.
Burlington, N. J. . . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . . . .	The French Revolution . . . . .	Jan. 9, 16, 23, Feb. 6, 20, Mar. 6, 20.
Camden, N. J. . . . .	Graham Wallas . . . . .	The Story of the English Towns . . . . .	Jan. 11, 18, 25, Feb. 1, 8, 15.
Elizabeth, N. J. . . . .	William Francis Magie . . . . .	Physics . . . . .	Jan. 14, 21, 28, Feb. 4, 11, 18.
Franklin . . . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . . . .	The French Revolution . . . . .	Jan. 19, 26, Feb. 2, 9, 16.
Harrisburg . . . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . . . .	The French Revolution . . . . .	Jan. 7, 14, 21, 28, Feb. 4, 11.
Indiana . . . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . . . .	The French Revolution . . . . .	Jan. 15, 22, 29, Feb. 3, 10, 17.
Moorestown, N. J. . . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . . . .	The French Revolution . . . . .	Feb. 20, Mar. 1, 8, 15, 22, 29.
Newark, N. J. . . . .	Edward T. Devine . . . . .	The French Revolution . . . . .	Feb. 8, 15, 22, Mar. 1, 8, 15.
Newark, N. J. . . . .	Edward T. Devine . . . . .	Economics . . . . .	Mar. 22, 29, April 5, 12, 19, 26.
Orange, N. J. . . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . . . .	The French Revolution . . . . .	Feb. 26, Mar. 5, 12, 19, 26, April 2.
Pittsburg . . . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . . . .	The French Revolution . . . . .	Jan. 11, 18, 25, Feb. 1, 8, 15.
Riverton, N. J. . . . .	Henry W. Elson . . . . .	The Great Republic in its Youth . . . . .	Jan. 7, 14, 21, 28, Feb. 3, 10.
Salem, N. J. . . . .	Albert H. Smyth . . . . .	English Literature . . . . .	Jan. 12, 19, Feb. 9, 23, Mar. 9, 23.
Wilmington, Del . . . . .	Hilaire Belloc . . . . .	The French Revolution . . . . .	Feb. 18, 25, Mar. 4, 11, 18, 25.

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